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ABSTRACT

This report is the Swedish contribution to the Teacher Education Programme Review, developed by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation. The review investigated how institution-based programs of teacher education in different countries adapt to new requirements and new expectations. In Sweden, the training program for comprehensive school teachers was selected as the topic of the review. The report provides background information; describes recent reforms in Swedish teacher education, higher education, and the comprehensive school; and offers suggestions about teacher quality formulated at the policy level. The present situation is described in terms of course characteristics, student characteristics, course philosophy and teaching approach, composition of staff, course structure, assessment of students, field experiences, and involvement of practicing teachers. The report contends that two views of professionalism have developed: (1) professionalism is a necessary precondition for the development of the local school, and requires that teachers have strong methodology and pedagogics as well as a theoretical foundation; and (2) professionalism is guaranteed if every student receives a curriculum of basic knowledge and then training in how to teach a process which requires teachers to have solid subject knowledge followed by practical pedagogical training. (Contains 10 references.) (JDD)

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Some notes on

THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN SWEDEN

by

Berit Askling and Gunilla Jedeskog

A background report to
OECD/CERI TEACHER EDUCATION QUALITY STUDY:
The Teacher Education Review

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I. INTRODUCTION

As a part of the OECD/CERI ***Teacher Quality Study****, cross-country reviews of individual teacher education programmes undergoing or contemplating change were to be undertaken. As one of the member countries, Sweden accepted to take part in the review in cooperation with Denmark.*

This report is the Swedish contribution to the Teacher Education Programme Review in the OECD/CERI Teacher Quality Study. Unfortunately, the planned on-site visit of Danish experts in a Swedish teacher education training programme was not accomplished. Therefore, the report only gives some general information about the current teacher training programme for teachers in the nine year comprehensive school in Sweden.

II. THE SWEDISH CONTRIBUTION TO THE REVIEW

1. The aims of the OECD/CERI study

The overall purpose of the OECD/CERI study of Teacher Quality is to clarify the concept "teacher quality" and to develop a better understanding of the effects of policies intended to foster teacher quality - and to describe the conditions under which policies can be implemented successfully[1]. This means that the system policy level as well as the school and classroom levels have to be considered.

Within the framework of the study three separate activities were outlined:

a) Case studies of strategies aimed at improving or sustaining teacher quality;
b) Seminars with practicing teachers;
c) Reviews of individual teacher education programmes undergoing orcontemplating change.

OECD member countries were invited to take part in one or more of the activities. By the overall design of the study and the detailed guidelines, cross country comparisons were expected to be facilitated. Sweden accepted to take part in all three activities.

Thus, the OECD Teacher Quality study focuses on indicators of various kinds: student outcomes, socio-economic context and policy, all in one way or another indicating what counts as teacher quality and in what kind of socio- economic and policy context the notion of teacher quality is defined.

2. The aims of the review of a teacher education programme

The purpose of the review of teacher education programmes is to investigate how institution-based programmes of teacher education in different countries adapt to new requirements and new expectations. In the review, countries were to take part two and two, forming pairs[2]. In each country, just one institution with a teacher education programme was to be selected for an on-site review.

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[1] CERI/TE (92) 7, page 4.

[2] Austria - Finland; France - United Kingdom (Scotland); Sweden - Denmark

In the OECD outline of the review it is asserted that teacher education programmes have a crucial role to play in assisting present and future teachers to aquire and develop the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for them to be successful in their schools and classrooms. The teacher training programmes are, according to the outlines, supposed to be both pro-active and responsive to the changing policies and demands from employers, teachers, school authorities, and the wider community; thus reflecting what within the programmes are experienced as challenges and demands from the outside. By examining content and directions of recent movements and changes in teacher education, currently held assumptions about teacher quality and educational policy might be unveiled.

3. The cancelled on-site visit

The OECD design of the teacher education review implies that, by use of external expertise, the concept "teacher quality" could be clarified and a better understanding of the effects of policies intended to foster teacher quality could emerge.

Pairs of countries were organised in order to accomplish such reviews and Sweden and Denmark formed one pair. One particular teacher education programme - the training programme for comprehensive school teachers - was selected as the topic of the review and a background dossier was prepared by the Swedish experts.

However, the on-site visit was not accomplished. Therefore, instead of an external review of a particular programme, this report gives some general impressions of the current state of this programme in Sweden, put together by the Swedish experts themselves.

4. About this paper

In this paper some background information about the Swedish teacher training programme for teachers in the comprehensive school is reported in accordance with the questions in figure 1, CERI/TE (92) 8.

In the 70s and 80s a series of reforms affected the entire structure and the inner life of this teacher training programme. These

reforms brought to the fore assumptions and notions of teacher quality held by politicians and teachers in teacher education at that time. As an introduction to our answers to the questions in figure 1, we give a brief description of some recent reforms in Swedish teacher education, higher education in general and the comprehensive school. Finally, we give some tentative suggestions about current notions of teacher quality formulated on policy level and kept alive in the context of teacher education.

When examining recent and current changes in teacher education we use two dimensions: the time dimension and the organisational (hierarcial) dimension. We also pay attention to two activities - the formulation of a policy and the realisation of the very same policy[3]. The "power" of the individual actor to exert influence in anyone of the two activities - or in both - must also be taken into account.

In order to understand the meaning of a policy launched at a particular time, the policy has to be interpreted against the background of earlier policies and practice. An ongoing practice has no meaning without an awareness of earlier policies and practice. A reform has a history that in one way or another influences what kind of changes are actually proposed and what kind of reactions and counteractions will dominate during the implementation. "From where and to what"? is a question that has to be treated if we want to understand the rationale of a particular educational change.

Within an organisation a particular policy can be more or less cherished by decision-makers and executives. A government policy for teacher education is not automatically the policy of the local teacher education board, and the policy of the board is not necessarily the policy of the individual teacher in teacher education. Besides, those who are acting on the lowest level in an organisation are not necessarily guided in their own work by the same kind of ideas and assumptions that form the basis for the policy laid down on the central level for the whole enterprise. "From whom to whom"? and "Who is responsible for what?" are also questions to take into account when trying to understand the underlying reasons behind educational changes.
With a reference to the theoretical framework of Bourdieu (1977), every level in an organisation can be regarded as a "field", in which

[3] Lindensjö, B och Lundgren, U (1986)

the actors have a certain space of action. In negotiations about what policy to adopt and how to turn this policy into practice, the influence from the actors can be regarded as determined by their social and cultural "capital" and what value ("power") this particular capital has in that particular field. In line with this Bourdieu-inspired perspective, questions such as "Who has power in this context?" "What counts as power?" are also to be raised in order to get a better understanding of what determines the current conditions in the training programme for comprehensive school teachers.

In order to give a background for our tentative suggestions about current notions of teacher quality we will focus on issues concerning programme structure and content. As a "map" for describing Swedish teacher training programme for comprehensive school teachers the following figure will be used.

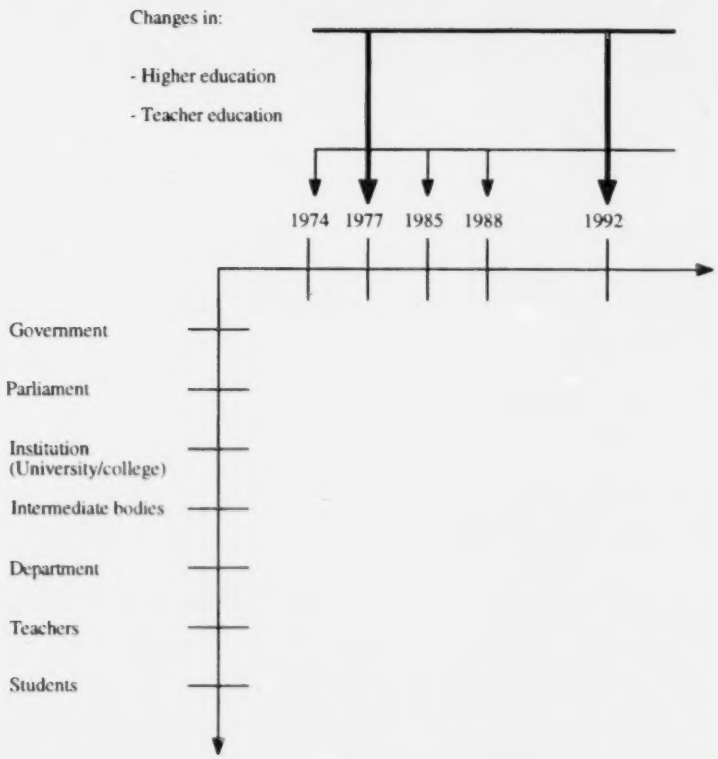

Figure 1: *Swedish teacher education: Some notable years and levels of decision-making.*

III. SWEDISH COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMME - a new programme

1. The implementation in 1988

In 1988 the preservice training programmes for comprehensive school teachers were reformed and one single integrated training programme for comprehensive school teachers was set into work[4]. The reform decision was preceded by a very long investigation period (since 1974) and several government proposals, before the resolution was finally passed by the Parliament in 1985.

The reform can be regarded as the last step in the development of the comprehensive school system for all children between seven and sixteen. The reform period started in 1962, when a national curriculum for all students in the comprehensive school was laid down. In comprehensive school the students - in general - receive a basic education that is the same for all. The organisational differentiation is minimal and, thus, the teachers must be able to individualize within the classroom. All teachers have a collective responsibility for the students' acquisition of basic knowledge and skills and for their personal development in general.

The basic principle underlying the new training programme was the necessity to regard comprehensive school as a single entity with no streaming of students into different classes and with no marked division of students and teachers into separated stages or levels. All teachers have an overall responsibility for the whole student and ought to share a common pedagogical ideology (which does not mean that they are expected to share a common political ideology).

The reform was also in line with the decentralisation movements in the school system gradually introduced in the 70s. From about that time, teachers were expected to cooperate in so called working units and to take an active part in curriculum planning. For that reason as well, a more com-monly shared school ideology and a professional identity were considered necessary prerequisites for this increased influence on curriculum issues.

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[4] In 1992, the conservative Government introduced an alternative subject teacher training programme for grades 4-9 for students who have already taken their subject courses and have made a late vocational choice.

The main purpose for establishing the new teacher training programme in 1988 was to get teacher education in line with these basic principles - organisational as well as ideological - for the comprehensive school and to use teacher education as a support for this desired development. The *normative* function of the reform was clearly expressed and the proposed uniform structure was regarded as a necessary precondition for creating an ideological homogeneity - in a wide sense - in comprehensive school teacher staff.

In this new training programme for comprehensive school teachers, prospective teachers are prepared for work in grades 1-7 or grades 4-9 in the comprehensive school within a broad area of subjects, including some of the aesthetical subjects. (In addition to this programme there are other training programmes preparing for more specialised teaching in comprehensive school, such as art teacher education, craft teacher education, music teacher education etc. However, the training programme for comprehensive school teachers is outstanding with regard to number of study places).

The main parts of the training programme are subject studies, pedagogics including educational theory, methodology and teaching practice and fieldwork. In the national study plan, laid down by the National Board of Universities and Colleges in time for the implementation of the reform, the subjects to be covered were listed and expressed in terms of weeks of full-time studies (points). (This schedule of stipulated subjects and points is listed in appendix 1). The programme is composed of elements from different knowledge areas. Local intermediate boards got the responsibility for organising the programme into courses, in each of which the content could be drawn from one or more of these knowledge areas. (It is worth noticing that since 1992, there is no national board and from 1993 this kind of central prescriptions are eliminated, see section IV).

Within the apparently single and integrated study programme for comprehensive school, various alternative study programmes are offered, preparing for specialisations not only with regard to grades (1-7 and 4-9) but also to the combination of subjects, academic ones as well as aesthetic ones. In general, prospective teachers for the lower grades (1-7) are prepared for teaching in several subjects during 3,5 years (140 points), prospective teachers

for grades 4-9 get a more in-depth preparation in just a few subjects during 4-4,5 years (160-180 points). (See figure in appendix 2).

Despite these differences in length and content, it was stipulated that the programme must cover 40 points of studies in pedagogics, methodology and practical training (all together often called the practical/pedagogical preparation), the same for all students irrespective of orientations and specialisations. Among other things, the reform also implied that special and remedial pedagogy must be included for all teacher students covering at least 10 points (10 weeks).

When describing a reform - and especially when trying to understand the implementation process - not just changes officially intended and expected have to be taken into account, but also what conditions the reform is an active reaction against.

The reform in 1988 meant an integration of three up to then separate programmes[5]: the two highly vocationally oriented class-based teacher education programmes (for grades 1-3 resp 4-6 in the comprehensive school) and the former highly separated subject-based university programme - with subject studies followed by one year of practical-pedagogical preparation (for grades 7-9 in the comprehensive school and for grades 1-3 in the upper secondary school). These three programmes were integrated into one single programme for comprehensive school teaching. Two different professional profiles (the management of pupils and the management of material to be taught) and two different teacher training traditions (the seminar tradition and the academic tradition) were to be brought together[6]. (The former subject teacher education was kept intact, but was restricted to preparing for teaching in the upper secondary school[7]).

A central feature of the reform was to reinforce and extend the subject-based training for teaching at the lower levels and allow for a broader preparation for the discipline-based teaching in the upper level of the comprehensive school. Compared to the former

[5] In 1977 -due to the higher education reform (see paragraph III. 2) - the programmes were incorporated into the higher education organisation.

[6] See Hartman, S (1993)

[7] In 1992 - a new subject teacher programme has been introduced by the Government as an alternative to the 4-9 orientation.

programmes, teachers working in grades 1-7 nowadays get a longer preparation in subject studies but a slight reduction of their practical-pedagogical training, while teachers in grades 4-9 get about the same length of preparation as before, but now covering one more school subject than was the case in the former programme. From the point of view of some of the critics of the reform, the proposed length of the subject studies in the 4-9 orientation was sharply questioned, from other critics it was the time available for dealing with practical-pedagogical issues that was questioned.

These changes were perceived as gains or losses among teacher educators - and also in the public debate. In fact, the very long investigation and preparation period that preceded the reform decision (from 1974 to 1985) was mainly caused by this problem of finding a balance between the different kinds of preparation. Of course, the dilemma was not solved when the overall design of the programme was to be "translated" into courses, points and teacher lessons. On the contrary, the local implementation gave rise to tensions and conflicts between departments and between fractions of teacher educators in the staff[8], more frequent and pronounced at the universities with their scientifically oriented disciplinary departments and the two orientations (1-7 and 4-9) than at the university colleges with only the 1-7 orientation and a more non-academic (and also teacher programme- oriented) staff . The proposed integration of students from different orientations and specialisations into joint study groups increased the complexity in the planning even further.

In this debate, the concept *didactics* was introduced and got a key role. If the disciplinary studies could be more directed toward didactical issues and knowledge areas relevant for teaching school subjects, it was argued, the broadened subject preparation for grades 4-9 within the same space of time as the former subject teacher education would not mean a real reduction in subject specialisation. At the same time the reduction of time for practical-pedagogical training could be compensated for by this orientation towards didactics. In addition, the didactical orientation was also considered a promising pathway to research on such issues as teaching and learning.

[8] This is a main outcome in the local evaluation studies that have been undertaken. See among others Beach, D (1990)

Introduced in order to reach a variety of goals, the concept "didactics" was not easily defined. In Swedish teacher education, the concept had been out of stock for several decades. Due to the strong influence from U.S. -oriented progressive movements, it had been replaced by such concepts as methods and pedagogics in the 50s and 60s. When re-introduced in this reform context, it gave rise to several interpretations and a lot of confusion about what was meant by the concept.

To sum up, particularly stressed in the new programme were the following goals[9]

* To increase the possibilities for teachers in different categories to develop a common view of the profession and to cooperate in so-called working units, thus supporting the development of the comprehensive school towards one integrated school;

* To increase teachers' capacity to deal with pupils who have learning problems and other problems in school, thus supporting all teachers in the comprehensive school to take an overall responsibility for the whole pupil;

* To increase the didactical orientation of the subject studies, thus compensating for the reduced time for practical/pedagogical preparation.

This extensive reform involved a variety of disciplines and departments and also a great number of teachers with varying academic background and career patterns. In what organisational context then - with regard to decision-making structure and distribution of influence - was the reform implemented?

2. The higher education context from 1977

In accordance with a reform in 1977, the whole of the higher education system was changed. As a consequence of that reform, all teacher colleges - located in the university towns and in some other communities - were integrated into the higher education organisation[10]. So, the teacher education reform in 1988 was in fact the

[9] These areas of competence also formed the basis for the in-service programme for teachers.
[10] With the exception of the Stockholm Institute of Education, which still constitutes an autonomous institution.

second reform within a rather short period thoroughly affecting teacher education.

In this reform of higher education, efforts were made to create a *unified* system by bringing together institutions and educational programmes which had previously been administered separately. The uniformity of the system was designed to facilitate a rational planning of higher education opportunities. It was also meant to reduce the differences in status and prestige between traditional university programmes and non-academic vocational training (among them was class-teacher education). With regard to structure the system was uniform, with regard to study programmes and students - as well as teachers - it was a fairly heterogeneous - higher education system.

The higher education reform also meant a decentralisation of the decision making on curriculum issues to new intermediate bodies with representatives of teachers, students and corresponding professional fields. According to their instructions, the bodies were supposed to claim the overall goals of the training programmes - including the vocationally oriented ones - when "ordering" teaching from the departments for the courses. The decision-making structure from 1977 thus formed a matrix, in which vocationally oriented demands, claimed by the intermediate bodies, were to be counterbalanced by academic ones, claimed by the boards of the departments.

For teacher education, up till 1977 under the strict superintendency of the National Board of Education[11], the new higher education context could mean a real change. Within the framework of national study plans, local committes and boards were now responsible for the division of programmes into courses and length and content of these courses. But, frankly speaking, the changes did not immediately affect the inner life of teacher education (Askling 1983). Several years after the higher education reform, the former structure and the former time tables were clearly visible in the regulations of teachers' duties in teacher education.

On the other hand, with regard to the location of teacher education, the higher education reform did not imply any changes at all. Instruction was - and still is - provided in the same buildings as

[11] The national agency for the compulsory school and the upper secondary school.

before the reform and there was no change in the composition of the teaching staff. Prospective teachers specialising for grades 1-7 still receive their entire training at the former teacher training colleges, now forming parts of the university colleges, or at former teacher college departments at the universities. Prospective teachers specialising for grades 4-9 take their subject courses at university departments, which are responsible for the subject teacher education of teachers in upper secondary school.

According to the national study plan students from the two orientations (for grades 1-7 and grades 4-9) ought to meet each other for joint studies in at least some of the courses. However, it is only at the universities that the desired integration between the two orientations can be carried through. At some of the universities the local boards were eager to arrange for rather extensive joint studies; at other universities the complexity of the schedule issues was hard to manage and, therefore, over the years, rather few options of joint studying have been offered. (Institutions that managed to realise an integration of students from the two orientations in joint courses are sometimes blamed by the students for offering a too firm and stiff schedule.)

Thus, as to the new programme introduced in 1988: teacher education has had a long tradition of state regulations and prescriptions and taken for granted equivalence of outcomes. Due to a government reform extensive changes in aims, structure and content were introduced and the programme was given an overall nation-wide design. It was top down reformed. However, within the space of action allowed for in the recently decentralised higher education organisation, there was also room for a bottom-up implementation of the programme. Gradually, the uniformity has eroded and the programme has got local profiles. Today, at some institutions the two orientations are visible as two separate and independent programmes, at others the orientations are at least partly integrated into one programme.

3. The research orientations

The higher education reform in 1977 and the integration of all post-secondary education into one higher education organisation also introduced another kind of changes (in addition to the ones mentioned in section III. 1). The programme had to meet the higher

education demands on research links and a scientifically based teaching.

On the one hand, teacher education was looked upon as a steering tool for the development of the comprehensive school in a direction previously agreed upon in parliament decisions. On the other hand, teacher education was supposed to gain from its belonging to the higher education organisation. Research and research connection was also considered to be of great value for teacher education. Thus, the clearly outspoken normative tasks of the new programme were expected to be fulfilled in a context where research is highly valued.

The new-old concept of didactics gave a direction for carrying out research connections and for establishing the desired scientific basis for teacher education. Didactic centres were founded at some of the universities. Research oriented courses in didactics were offered to teachers in comprehensive school and to non-graduated teachers in teacher education as bridges to graduate studies. In these didactic centres and from these courses many teachers of methods found a theoretical basis for their own teaching.

A didactically oriented research is now well established in many research departments of education. In a phenomenographically oriented research into didactical issues, assumptions and beliefs held by pupils, prospective teachers and teacher educators on such concepts as power, gravitation, etc are investigated. This research, mainly founded on cognitive and development psychology, approaches didactical questions in subject studies in a way that makes sense for teachers and is considered relevant for them in their own teaching.

Gradually, a more curriculum-oriented research did also emerge - taking as a point of departure the ongoing decentralisation in the comprehensive school system. Teaching traditions and teaching practice have been analysed in terms of social as well as individual constructions of reality from epistemological, historical and structural perspectives. In this research orientation, teachers are offered conceptual tools for a better understanding of the rationales for curriculum reforms, for time-table changes etc.

4. Notions of Teacher Quality in the reform movement in the 80s

The new teacher education programme expressed a political reaction *against* the former separated teacher education programmes and *for* using teacher education as a tool for implementing the policy of the comprehensive school. The official rationale for the reform was more directly derived from the system level of the school system (to create an integrated nine year comprehensive school) and from the at that time existing three separate teacher training programmes - than from conditions in the teaching profession or in practical schooling. The reform was argued for in terms of a policy on the national level concerning the school system rather than from identified problems in schooling or teaching.

Among the members of the intermediate boards and in the staff, there were also pronounced arguments for or against the policy proposed and the new programme structure. The reform brought to the fore a diversity in assumptions and beliefs about teaching and schooling - and also the variety of opinions about what is the best preparation for teaching. The two former teacher training traditions, as well as the different professional profiles (see section III.1) were clearly visible, and also within each of them a variation in perspectives on subject knowledge, on child development and on pupil relations.

Despite all these disagreements, there was a general support for personal and social qualifications as of great value - in fact necessary - for successful teaching. The normative goal of helping teachers to develop a shared pedagogical ideology for making teamwork and cooperation easier was quite new. However, an "operationalisation" of the goals in terms of teacher qualification fitted into an already commonly hold framework - and were accepted.

The new reason for these personal qualifications - the decentralisation in the school system and teachers' expected engagement in curriculum development work - were not on the agenda, neither in the public debate nor in teacher education staff. The consequences of the decentralisation was not expressed in terms of teacher qualifications for curriculum planning and curriculum development. These aspects of the decentralisation were not analysed and there was no familiarity with this kind of teacher duties.

IV. RECENT CHANGES IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT - affecting teacher education

In 1992/93 several proposals for extensive changes in the higher education organisation were made by the Government. These changes also affect teacher education.

The proposals cover a wide variety of issues such as principles for resource allocation, the composition of intermediate local boards, and the decision making structure. Further steps towards a decentralisation are now taken, and a more pronounced market orientation is introduced, which means - among other things - that the institutions now are more openly suggested to compete for "good" students. The system is also meant to support students to "vote with their feet", thus giving signals of what programmes and courses they consider being of good quality. This will probably support a development towards local profiles thus reducing the nation-wide uniformity even more.

The claim for a strong academic leadership is evident and the influence from the academics is strengthed in the local boards. The external influence is reduced and so is also the representation in the boards of teachers without doctorate (the main teacher group in teacher education).

In the last years, unemployment rates have increased and the worrying situation on the labour market has also affected the pattern of study and working plans. Until a few years ago young people, after leaving upper secondary school, often spent one or two years working and/or travelling before applying for a study place in higher education. Now an increasing group of students cannot get jobs on the labour market. In order to avoid a further increase in unenployement rate, the number of study places has increased in higher education.

This affects teacher education. A larger number of students are now (1993) applying for a study place in the comprehensive school teacher programme - even in the specialisations in mathematics and science[12] - and the qualification level of the students is getting higher. This gives quite another situation for teacher education

[12] These specialisations did not attract students during the first years after 1988. Students with the formal qualifications for these specialisations preferred the more technical and science oriented study programmes at the universities.

than in the implementation phase. At that time, at the end of the 80s, teacher education was not a very popular choice and there was a shortage of students with proper qualifications.

A quite new teacher education programme has been established as an alternative to the 4-9 orientation. Proposed by the Conservatives, this new programme means in part a re-establishment of the former subject-teacher training programme in which the subject studies have to be finished before the practical-pedagogical one year training course. Many teacher educators have interpreted this alternative as a retreat of the conservative government from the comprehensive school policy and a wish to re-establish a more profound academic orientation of the preparation for teaching in the upper grades in comprehensive school. A more pragmatical - and less ideological - explanation is that the current expansion of study places in higher education - mainly in the faculty of liberal arts and sciences - must be followed up by vocationally oriented study programmes permitting - among other opitions - a late vocational choice to the teaching profession.

V. PRESENT SITUATION AND RECENT CHANGES - a description following figure 1 in CERI/TE (92) 8.

1. Course characteristics

length; specialisations; size of student population; mode of attendance; course award/degree

- Courses

The programme is divided into courses by local boards and committees. The pattern of courses (number, length, content) varies between institutions as do the degree of integration of subject studies and theoretical and practical training[13].

In the implementation of the programme, the tendency was to divide the programme into many small courses. There were several reasons for giving the local programmes this structure:
- The study aid system requires a continuous "point production" from the students, which is facilitated if the students have to pass a series of short assessments instead of having one or two extensive - and thus also demanding - examinations. With the programme divided into many courses the risk-taking in each assessment is reduced.
- The more piecemeal of the programme, the easier it is to carry out the recommended integration of students from different orientations and specialisations. Extensive courses of long duration block the shedule and have been avoided in order to make room for more joint study between student groups from different orientations.

In addition to the integration of students, there was also another kind of desirable integration to take into account when the programme was to be divided into courses: the integration of (or links between) theoretical studies on the one hand and practical school experiences on the other hand. It is highly appreciated by the students.

However, all kinds of integration cause interruptions in the studies and, therefore, sometimes prevents a true progression with regard to degree of difficulty in the "academic" demands.

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[13] Askling, B et al (1991)

The examination system can be characterised as "soft". Right now, however, there seems to be a trend towards longer courses and thus also towards more demanding examination tasks. In addition, the examination regulations now stipulate that all study programmes of a certain length (among them comprehensive school teacher education) must include a 10 point special work by the students.

- Student population

Teacher training for comprehensive school teachers is located in 15 institutions: the six universities and nine of the university colleges (the former teacher training colleges). The institutions vary with regard to number of students, number of orientations (1-7 and 4-9 or only 1-7) and number of alternative specialisations (see section III. 2 and appendix 3). They also vary with regard to research resources.

- Attendance

For most courses, and for all practical training, attendance is compulsory. The students in the orientations and alternatives form classes that, as a rule, are kept intact during the whole programme. The efforts to arrange for joint studies (and thus temporarily break up the firm and fixed class-structure) varies between institutions.

- Marks

There are no graded marks of the courses, just pass or fail. There is no final examination. The programme is passed when all courses are passed and the 10 point examination work is accomplished. The percentage rate of passing is high, over 90%. Several explanations have been suggested for this high rate: Teacher educators have a personal and caring attitude towards their students and create a supportive study climate (and at the same time they are acting as good teacher models), fellow students are supportive as there is no competition for graded marks, the course structure (see above) paved the way for an assessment structure with several small-scale assessments.

- Course assessment

. In the assessment of the students, a variety of methods are used such as oral assessment, written tests or papers, group work.

- Joint studies

Great efforts are undertaken to bring students from the two orientations and the many alternatives together in as many courses as possible. Due to this endeavour to arrange for joint courses, the students can belong to many different groupings during their studies in the programme. The opinions among the students to such joint studies vary. Some students find it an excellent opportunity to get to know other prospective teachers (than the ones they meet every day in their own classes); other students declare that they feel uneasy when brought together in heterogeneous groups. Among teacher educators you can find a similar pattern of opinions.

2. Student characteristics

Women are in majority among the students in almost all kinds of teacher training programmes. With regard to the training programme for comprehensive school teaching, in the orientation 1-7 about 85% of the students are women; in the orientation 4-9 about 65% are women.

About 75% of the students admitted to study places are 24 years or younger when they start their training (see appendix 4).

The drop-out rate is low, less than 10%. Suggested reasons for the low rate are:

* the early school practice in the beginning of the programme gives an opportunity for the students to test their own professional choice.
* personal teacher-student relations create a supportive climate
* the class-bound lessons give opportunities for mentorship and guidance
* the absence of extensive examinations also means an absence of test anxiety.

3. Course philosophy and teaching approach

As was mentioned before (see section III.1), the integration of the former different teacher education traditions was not carried out without rather intense and sometimes hard negotiations between groups of teachers protecting their own traditions and fighting for the territory of their disciplines and subjects.

In addition to these scheduled opportunities for a theory-and-practice integration, there are other forms of integration as well: Teachers in methodology and pedagogics sometimes visit their students jointly for supervision, the students get assignments concerning pedagogics, subjects and methodology to be fulfilled in the periods of practical training.

Sometimes teachers in methodology, pedagogics and subjects are engaged in the same courses in order to facilitate a didactical orientation. Most teachers appreciate this kind of integration, but at the same time they feel that they don't get enough time to prepare their students sufficiently in their own areas of knowledge. Teachers in pedagogics (which also includes educational theory) claim that they need more time for elaborating the profound theoretical foundation for the professional work. Teachers in methodology sometimes feel uneasy when they - in the cooperation with colleagues in pedagogics - are reminded of their own weak theoretical and academic background. Teachers in subject studies claim that they need more time for a proper subject preparation.

4. Composition of staff ; how staff is appointed, qualifications, etc; use of staff

In the programmes, a variety of specialised teachers are engaged. Some of them have their whole teaching duty in teacher education classes and identify themselves as teacher educators. Many of them have their affiliation at departments solely engaged in teacher education. In this group you will find all teachers in methodology, art, music and drama. In the university colleges you can also include teachers in pedagogics and educational theory and some of the teachers in subject studies into this group of teacher educators.

However, a large group of subjects teachers, although giving many lessons in teacher education programmes, do not regard themselves as teacher educators. Their affiliation is to their disciplines

and departments where most teaching and almost all research is directed towards academic and disciplinary issues and where the involvement in teacher education - compared to other activities in the departments - is marginal. These teachers identify themselves as university teachers and are sometimes rather reluctant towards proposals for more didactical elements in the courses and invitations to more active involvement in teacher education issues.

In many institutions, mainly at the big universities, this "cultural" division is reinforced by the geographical location of departments to different parts of the towns. The location reflects the former diversified post- secondary education system, with teacher education in separate teacher training colleges (superintended by the National Board of Education) separate from the universities (which were subjected to State regulations but nevertheless with a great amount of "academic" independence and autonomy).

When the university colleges were established in the higher education reform in 1977, they were - with a few exceptions - founded on the former teacher training colleges. The geographical integration of teacher education into a new higher education context was at hand from the very beginning, but teacher education is not always regarded as the most prestigeous part in this recently created higher education context.

A fundamental problem in teacher education is the fairly low percentage of teachers holding doctorate. Depending on orientation and subjects, prospective teachers will meet a varying number of post-graduated teachers. In the 1-7 orientation this percentage is low, compared to the 4-9 orientation, where a majority of the teachers in subject studies holds a doctor's degree. There is a general shortage of teachers with a didactical competence on a degree level.

5. **Course structure**
how content is arranged; time spent in schools

About the arrangement of content, see question 3.

In general, about 20 weeks of the total study time are spent in schools for teaching practice.

6. Assessment of students
nature and kind of assessments

In the practical-pedagogical parts of the programme, assessment is based on the students' regular attendance and also on individually written papers. In general, the assessment system in this part of the programme is "soft". In the subject studies, there are mainly written assessments and/or laboratory tests.

In the last course of practical training, the teaching proficiency and fitness for the profession is estimated.

As was said earlier, there is no final examination. When all courses are passed, the students get the final mark. These also form the certification for the profession. Thus, the certification is in the hands of the teacher educators, mainly the ones who are teachers in methodology and visit the students several times in the practical training schools.

There is no local accreditation of the training programme by an external board or agency.

7. Field experiences
structure, assessment

In general (the pattern differs among the institutions) the students get their first period of practice during the first term. Somewhere in grades 1-9 they get a placement lasting a few weeks. The purpose of this first placement is to help the students to change their perspective from pupil to teacher and to be familiar with the variety of tasks and duties in the profession. Special attention is paid to economy, rules and organisation of the school and to the relative influence of school administration, staff and immediate environment on teachers' work.

Several periods of practice are included in the programme, some of them extending for just a few weeks and the last one for about two months. In these periods the students will gradually carry out more and more of a teacher's responsibilities and duties.

In some of the theoretical courses the students make shorter visits, so called field studies, to schools and to pre-school centres in order

to become acquainted with - among other things - routines and resources for treating pupils with learning difficulties.

These practical parts of the programme are highly valued by the students as they offer experiences considered to have a "face validity". However, some teachers - mainly in pedagogics (including educational theory) - find the practical training somewhat "seductively" relevant if it is not preceded by an introduction in which the students get help to analyse their own - often naive and student-related - beliefs and assumptions about teaching.

8. **Involvement of practicing teachers**
nature of involvement in planning, teaching and assessment of training and/or students; percentage of involvement)

The practical training is accomplished in the comprehensive school system. There are no special training schools - the practical training is located to ordinary schools. For each period of practice the teacher student gets a supervisor. The supervisors are selected by the teachers in methodology in cooperation with the heads in the schools. The community gets funding from the university for the school practice. The payment to the communities for the school practice (incuding the supervision) covers about 15% of the total programme cost.

Teachers in methodology have the main responsibility for the students' school practice. The assessment of the students' fitness for the profession is undertaken by teachers in methods and pedagogics - not by the supervisors at the schools.

VI. CURRENT CONTEXT - a description following figure 1 in CERI/TE (92) 8.

1. At this time, how do you view teacher education?

The training programme for comprehensive school teachers carries several old and sometimes contradictory ideas and assumptions, still remembered (and to a varying degree also still held) by teacher educators but fairly unknown among the students. Behind the actual structure and content of the programme official proposals and also local and individual intentions and ambitions affect the teacher educators' view of the programme - often in a very vivid way. The students approach the programme without this "filter" of personal experiences of earlier success and/or disappointments. Their "filter" is made up of their reasons for choosing teaching as the prospective profession and of their expectations on the programme. They experience how the programme actually works, not how it once was intended to work.

Therefore, two distinct approaches ought to be separated in an evaluation of the programme: the view of the teacher educators (and administrators, investigators etc) and the view of the students in the programme.

A predominant issue in reforming teacher education, was to bring two traditions together. Now, after some years, the overall impression is that the subject-teacher tradition dominates over the class-teacher tradition in the context where *policy is formulated* - both on the central level and on the local level. There are at least two reasons for this subject- dominance:
1) Since the very beginning of teacher education the written national curricula[14] for the corresponding school stages are considered the formal guidebooks - almost the keys - for the training programmes. In teacher education, the subject studies have by tradition got their dignity and their resources for teaching in accordance with their relative "position" and volume in the school curriculum. This close linkage of teacher education to the written curriculum might explain some of the evident -and apparently everlasting - tensions in Swedish teacher education between subject studies on the one hand and pedagogical studies and practical preparation on the other hand.

[14] In which the subjects are defined with regard to goal, content and time

2) The current strengthening of the "academic" in the higher education context will apparently give a more explicit academic influence on the teacher training programme. This influence is also evident in the new intermediate bodies (see section IV).

In contexts where the policy is to be *realised* and turned into practice, the academic tradition does not dominate to the same extent. On the contrary, the closer the students come to the practical training - via teachers in methodology and in pedagogics and during the practical training - the more they are exposed to a progressive value system (child-centred, integrated studies, etc) among the comprehensive school teachers - most evident and pronounced in the lower grades. The progressive and child-centred policy is deeply rooted - at least when expressed verbally. The actual teaching, on the other hand, seems to follow a fairly traditional pattern of teacher lead lessons.

All teacher educators, irrespective of subjects, complain about the too restricted time resources for their own subject. Many of them also complain about the stiff schedule and the interference from other parallel courses into their own (a disadvantage of the integrated programme structure). All teachers seem to be competing for the students' time and attention.

With the current references to an expected professionalism among teachers in the school system and also to the expected scientific foundation of teacher education, teachers in pedagogics find themselves facing an odd situation: On the one hand they are supposed to integrate their teaching with other teachers, mainly teachers in methodology, on the other hand they have the main responsibililty for the theoretical foundation of the programme. Their resources in time and lessons are too restricted for fulfilling these two tasks. Many of them complain that the students get too little of theoretical preparation in curriculum theory etc to be prepared for their extended professional teacher responsibilities in the working units of the comprehensive school[15].

The scientific foundation of teacher education is still weak. Compared to many other professional training programmes in the higher education context, research resources are limited and the

[15] The recent OECD review of education policy in Sweden (1992) also paid attention to this lack of proper preparation for teachers' broader responsibilities.

relevance and utility of educational research sometimes questioned - both within and outside teacher education.

What do the students say about the programme?

The overall impression is that the students - in general - are satisfied. When leaving teacher education, many of them declare that they are well prepared for their prospective teaching. Anyhow, they do identify some shortcomings:

While many teachers in subject studies declare that their subject teaching is sufficiently oriented towards the teaching profession, many teacher students complain that they get too little of didactical orientation in the subject studies. While teachers in pedagogics declare that they prepare for the teaching tasks, their students sometimes find themselves faced with rather abstract and boring lessons in curriculum theory. While teachers in methodology declare that they now give their subject - methodology - a quite new approach their students consider them sometimes giving very traditional lessons in methods and idealising their own teacher experiences.

Many students have witnessed a confusion about the concept didactics and also about the discrepancy between what their teachers sometimes say they are teaching and what they actually teach.

2. How would you describe the present roles of government, higher education institutions and school authorities in the development of teacher education programmes?

From the perspective of the government, teacher education is expected to function as a state steering instrument for keeping a national homogeneity in a decentralised school system, in which the steering power to a great extent has been handed over from the state to the communities, to the school units and to the professionals (the teachers). As a matter of fact, due to the extensive decentralisation, the steering function is more pronounced now than earlier in governmental documents.

What is then actually steering teacher education?

3. Actors and stake-holders

Today, the programme reflects the general movement of the teacher education reform in 1988 as well as the influence of local preconditions and traditions.

In principle, the organisational matrix structure (see section III. 2) fitted the purposes of teacher education very well, making room for planning boards to claim the professional goals of the programme and to "order" teaching and intruction in accordance with demands from the professional fields. However, the traditional faculty structure, still maintained in Swedish universities despite the incorporation of teacher education[16], gives no faculty territory exclusively for teacher education. The members of the teacher education staff belong to separate faculties, in accordance with their disciplinary and departmental affiliation. Each faculty is governed by its own faculty board, responsible for - among other things - research resources. This gives teachers in theoretical subjects a kind of faculty-bound as well as disciplinary-bound "immunity" in relation to the intermediate planning boards of teacher education. So, in practice, teacher education still lacks a strong position within the university. The vocationally oriented "orders" from the planning boards are not always considered the most important ones from the perspective of the discipline departments.

In course planning and when laying down working schedules, the position of teachers in the subject studies is strong. Their voices are heard as they have at least two winning cards: 1) Their "existence" is defined by the corresponding subject in the national curriculum, 2) They belong to well-established departments with long academic traditions. They have an easily defined "capital" both in relation to the national curriculum and in their academic disciplines.

However, when it comes to the final assessment of fitness for the profession, the teachers in methodology and pedagogics are in a strong position.

[16] There is no Faculty of Education in Swedish universities

4. Proactive and retroactive influence

Influence can be exerted in different ways. On one particular level, decisions that are taken can more or less thoroughly affect the activities on the levels below. In addition, a distinction has to be made between proactive and retroactive steering. On the one hand, influence can be exerted by use of prescriptions, regulations, etc. On the other hand, influence can be exerted by use of various forms of control of processes and outcomes. In both cases, the activities on the levels below are affceted.

The government, as well as boards on various levels in the higher education organisation (on institutional, intermediate and departmental levels), lay down frames and preconditions for the programme. In doing so they can - more or less - restrict the space of action of the intermediate and department boards and also the autonomy of the teachers.

Due to the complex structure of the programme, the schedule of the programme has to be rather stiff and makes no room for improvisations. Many teacher educators consider themselves as "victims" in a very strictly framed working situation restrained by decisions taken on levels above themselves.

On the other hand, the outcome control is in general weak. Nowadays many departments have introduced regular course evaluations, based on student questionnaires, as a kind of outcome control - but mainly for internal and informal usage. There is no scrutiny of the outcomes or passing rates of the individual teacher, and there is - so far - no external inspection or examination of the individual teacher's teaching or examination.

Thus, the internal system of prescriptions is still rather strong (mainly caused by the complex structure of the programme) but the internal control is - so far - almost in the hands of the teachers themselves. (See figure 2).

	Prescriptions	Control
A. Government -	weak (aim, content, curriculum) strong (economic frames)	weak(curriculum)
B. Institutions		
- institutional level	strong (economic frames)	weak
- intermediate level	strong (structure of progr.) weak (content)	weak
- departments	strong (the distribution of teaching duties, the compet. level of teachers)	partly strong (course evaluation) partly weak (out comes)
- teachers' level	strong	weak
C. School authorities	weak	weak

Figure 2: *Proactive and retroactive steering of teacher education*

When it comes to the more informal influence, the students themselves - when bringing into the programme their own beliefs of what counts as good teaching and sufficient teacher preparation - exert an important influence and are certainly affecting the teacher educators.

In addition, the whole world of schooling, to which the students are introduced in their periods of practice, certainly also brings into the programme an array of situations and experiences and, thus, exerts a powerful influence on the students - although in an unsystematic, personal and sometimes emotional way.

While this informal and unsystematic influence from school life is strong, to be sure, the formal influence from school authorities is weak, both in terms of prescripitions and control. There is no accreditation of the institutions, no external panel of examiners, no inspectorate.

VII. NOTIONS OF TEACHER QUALITY IN THE BEGINNING OF THE 90s - some tentative suggestions

In current references to teachers' professionalism, there are nowadays slight changes in the argumentations, compared to what was said in the 70s and 80s. This might indicate movements towards new definitions of teacher professionalism[17] and thus also movements towards new notions of teacher quality:

In the 70s and 80s, teachers were encouraged to take part in school-based development activities, thus getting opportunities to *develope* their own professionalism and take part in development of the school in line with the goals laid down by Parliament (see section III. 1). Most likely, behind such proposals was a notion of teacher professionalism as founded on practical experiences and on situation-bound and person-dependent knowledge of *how* to teach.

Mainly derived from current international research on professional knowledge, reflective practice and teacher thinking, a slightly different notion of professionalism is launched today. This notion is held by many researchers and teachers in the departments of education. According to this notion, professionalism is founded on personal theories of teaching and schooling, elaborated during systematic reflections in and on teaching. In this notion of professionalism, the theoretical foundation plays an important role as do the *why*-questions about teaching. The professionalism is to be developed in an interplay between experiences, personal reflections and theoretical models.

Nowadays in governmental documents we meet a further notion of professionalism, described as a *precondition* for the schools in developing their own profiles. Teachers are expected to be professionals when they enter school. Behind such assumptions apparently is a notion of the teaching professionalism as founded on a package of subject knowledge and on knowing *what* to teach.

These different references to professionalism give rise to two lines of arguments when it comes to the consequences for teacher education:

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[17] Hartman, S (1993)

1. *Professionalism is a necessary precondition for the development of the local school.* This statement gives a strong position for teachers in methodology and pedagogics as the ones who can offer tricks of the trade as well as a theoretical foundation for teachers' curriculum and classroom activities (although these offers sometimes are perceived as contradictory from the perspective of the students and as counteracting from the perspective of the teachers). In this view, an integrated teacher training programme (like the current one for comprehensive school teaching) gives the best preparation for the profession.

2. *Professionalism is guaranteed if every student gets a package of basic knowledge and then training in how to teach.* This statement gives a strong position for teachers in subject studies as the ones who can offer a solid foundation of subject knowledge. In this view, academic university studies - followed by practical-pedagogical training (like the subject teacher training and the new 4-9 programme) - gives the best preparation.

So, when the Government today makes references to teacher education and teacher professionalism as the main steering tools for the decentralised school system, you can really ask: "What kind of professionalism?" and "Steering towards what goals?"and you will get a variation of answers depending on whom you are asking. This also means that you will find a variety of notions of teacher quality in the public debate and in teacher education.

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Some notes on THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN SWEDEN

This background report is the Swedish contribution to the Teacher Education Programme Review in the OECD/CERI Teacher Quality Study. The report gives information about the current teacher education training programme for teachers in the nine year comprehensive school in Sweden. Particular attention is paid to the implementation of the programme and how different notions of teacher quality exert impact on the curriculum.

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